

The Comparison of the Role of Speaking Skills in the Direct Method, Audiolingual Method and Task-based Language Teaching

Si Li

School of Foreign Languages, Dalian Neusoft University of Information, Dalian, Liaoning, China
lisi@neusoft.edu.cn

Abstract: The aim of the paper is to compare the role of speaking skills in different language teaching methods. Three teaching methods, the Direct Method, Audiolingual Method and Task-based Language Teaching are selected to show how important speaking is considered to be from the perspective of those methods, compared to the other three skills. Examples are demonstrated to illustrate how speaking – i.e. pronunciation and / or discourse skills – is taught according to the methods that have been chosen.

Keywords: Speaking Skills, Direct Method, Audiolingual Method, Task-based Language Teaching

1. Introduction

Many language teachers and researchers find that speaking is an important skill while it is difficult to teach speaking in the classroom.^{[1] [2] [3] [4]} There are mainly three reasons. One is that speaking is not tested in examinations in some countries such as in China.^[3] Secondly, compared to reading and writing tasks which can be done by learners themselves, in the production of speech, for instance, in a conversation or discussion, each speaker needs to speak. However, unpredictability in the essence of conversation and lack of knowledge of turn-taking, reciprocity and repair by students result in the difficulty of a successful conversation in the classroom.^[2] Thirdly, it may result from cultural differences. In some cultures, students will not speak unless they are asked to do so by the teacher, which makes conversation practice difficult among learners.^[1]

Due to barriers presented above, how speaking can be taught effectively deserves attention. According to Richards and Rodgers, teachers will be more effective and language learning will be more successful if particular methods and approaches are precisely followed.^[5] Therefore, this essay is to explore the role of speaking in three teaching methods: the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method and Task-based Language Teaching. Generally, speaking skills are comprised of four sections: pronunciation (phonetics and prosody), discourse skills (conversation, discussion and presentation), intercultural communication skills (politeness, routines and customs) and spoken lexis and grammar, while this paper focuses on the pronunciation and discourse skills in speaking.^[2] ^[6] The main body consisting of Section2, Section3 and Section4 provides principles or definitions of the chosen methods, detailed explanations on how speaking skills (pronunciation and/or discourse skills) are taught, limitations of the Direct Method and Audiolingual Method, and feasible activities which can be used in TBLT. Finally, comparisons of the role of speaking skills in the three methods will be made in the conclusion.

2. Direct Method

2.1 The distinction between Grammar Translation Method and Direct Method

At the end of the nineteenth century, the Direct Method was developed as a response to the limitations of Grammar Translation method. In Grammar Translation method, vocabulary and grammar are emphasized with little attention to spoken language; students learn grammar rules and vocabulary by translating some single and isolated sentences designed by the teacher into the target

language.^[7] As learning to communicate in the second language became the goal of language learning, Direct Method which sought to immerse the learners in the same way the first language is learnt gained popularity. In Direct Method, teachers who make use of visual aids and demonstrations convey the meaning directly in the target language with a rule that no translation is allowed.^[8]

2.2 Principles underlying the Direct Method

There are several principles underlying the Direct Method: first, the goal of teachers using the Direct Method is to get students to learn to communicate in the target language. To achieve this, only target language is used in the classroom instruction and students are inspired to think in the target language.^[5]

Second, the syllabus used in the Direct Method is based on topics (such as the weather) or situations. For instance, one unit would consist of language that people would use at a post office, another of the language that they use when going travelling.^[9] Under the circumstances, students communicate with each other in the target language as if they were in real situations.

In the teaching process, the teacher demonstrates a new word or phrase through pictures or realia rather than translate it into the students' first language. For example, in order to illustrate a mountain range to the students, the teacher draws a series of inverted cones on the whiteboard.^[8] In Direct Method, grammar is taught inductively; that is, instead of giving them grammar rules directly, students are required to summarize the rules from presented examples. Also, complete sentences are preferred in the question and answer exercises and new vocabulary practice.^[5] In terms of error correction, students are encouraged to correct errors by themselves whenever possible.^[8]

2.3 Teaching language skills under Direct Method

Without any translation, oral communication plays a basic role in the Direct Method. A detailed explanation on how to teach language skills in Direct Method will be given based on the following passage, *Autumn*, an extract from Berlitz's *Method for teaching modern languages: English part*.

Autumn is the season of plenty. During summer the granaries have been filling, and now corn and potatoes, fruit, nuts, wine and cider are crowding every part of the spacious cellars and garrets. A walk through the fruit-markets of the city makes one's mouth water at the sight of the juicy pears and luscious grapes, which the ever saving housekeeper buys for a few cents. Soon November arrives. The last leaves have already been carried off by the north wind. The swallow has left, and the other birds sing no longer, leaving nature in silence and desolation.^[9]

At the beginning of the class, the teacher puts the prepared pictures about autumn in the front of the classroom. In class, students are called on one by one to read the passage *Autumn* on the handout sentence by sentence. When some new words, such as *granaries*, *cellars*, *garret*, *luscious*, *desolation* occur in relevant sentences, teachers read the words and let students repeat them after the student reads the sentence. Since the teacher is a native, students can be familiar with and learn the correct pronunciation (sound and stress) of new words. To be specific, students can grasp the segmental features of the target language, especially the accurate stress and articulation of vowels and consonants, for instance, /'grænərɪz/, /'selə/, /'gærət/, /'lʌʃəs/ and /desə'leɪʃən/ in this passage.

Concerning error correction, self-correction or peer correction can be used in the Direct Method class. Providing remedial correction is a necessary and unavoidable part of the processes of teaching and learning a language.^[10] For example, a student mispronounces *cellar* as /felə/ (i.e. he

reads the sentence as ...*every part of the spacious /ʃeləz/ and garrets*). The teacher encourages the students to try again, by saying *every part of the spacious... and garrets*, leaving the sentence open for completion. Except for self-correction, the teacher can also offer help by saying ‘can anyone in the class help?’ to encourage their peers to correct each other. As a consequence, students’ motivation can be activated, and also deep impression will be made in the whole class. In terms of illustrating the meanings of those words, teachers may point to the granaries, cellars, garret in the picture or describe the meaning of cellar as the space under the house, the meaning of garret as the space under the roof in the target language.^[9]

With regard to practical exercises in class, question and answer exercise is feasible under all teaching materials including passages, dialogues, dramas, etc, and it is necessary to carry out the exercise only in the target language.^[5] At the beginning of the exercise, students can answer questions asked by the teacher, for example, “what is wine made from?” or “what makes the country appear desolate at the end of autumn?”.^[9] After the teacher-directed interaction, students can design some questions on the passage according to their own interests to ask each other. It should be emphasized that learners are required to answer the questions in full sentences. In a word, students can practice prosodic features of speaking in the turns of reading the dialogue and the asking and answering question exercise.

In order to enhance students listening and writing skills, dictation exercise can be used. The teacher reads the passage four times. During the first reading, which will be done at normal speed, students listen and try to understand the meaning. For the second and third readings, the passage will be read sentence by sentence, or phrase by phrase, with some intervals. The last reading will be done at normal speed again and during this time students are asked to check their work.^[8]

From the above analysis, it can be seen that although reading, speaking, listening and writing all can be practiced in the Direct Method, speaking and listening skills precede reading and writing. Provided with many opportunities to speak in the classroom, students do not learn English as silently as they do in the Grammar Translation Method.

2.4 Limitations of the Direct Method

Although exclusive use of target language in the classroom can inspire students to think and use English naturally, it sometimes makes it difficult for teachers to illustrate some abstract vocabulary in the target language.^[5] For instance, Brown observed a teacher who made an effort to deliver the meaning of Japanese words performed verbal gymnastics, while in fact, translation would have been more efficient in this sense.^[5] Therefore, when it comes to explain some abstract vocabulary, brief explanation in the learners’ native language would have been easier to comprehend.

In addition, it is not suitable for public secondary school students. The Direct Method was popular in private language schools such as the Berlitz chain, in which students learn the target language for private or professional purposes, for instance, waiters working in a big hotel need to learn English to serve foreign customers.^[5] Furthermore, the speaking practice such as the question and answer exercise is only feasible in small-sized classes rather than big-size ones, so in some countries, for instance China with around 50 or 60 students in a class, this method is not applicable.

Other limitations, including without suitability for advanced learners, tight constraints on the teachers’ proficiency and lack of foundation in linguistic theory lead to the development of a new method, the Audiolingual Method.^[5]

3. The Audiolingual Method

3.1 The similarities and distinctions between the Direct Method and the Audiolingual Method

What is similar between the Direct Method and the Audiolingual Method (ALM) is that they both emphasize the role of speaking is basic in language learning. To be specific, both of them stress that during language learning process the meaning is conveyed directly in the target language without using the native language and translation.^[5] However, their distinctions are as follows: first, instead of focusing on vocabulary in the Direct Method, the Audiolingual Method pays more attention to grammatical sentence patterns.^[8] Second, drills and dialogues are the means of teaching spoken language in ALM.^[11] Third, ALM has strong basis in linguistics and psychology advocating habit-formation model of language learning.^[12]

3.2 Principles and characteristics of the Audiolingual Method

Teachers using the Audiolingual Method aim to teach students to use the target language communicatively. In order to achieve this, they believe that overlearning leads to automaticity.^[8] In Audiolingual Method, pronunciation teaching and new materials including structural patterns and new vocabulary (stimulus) are presented in dialogues and drills. Students learn the dialogues through imitation and repetition (reinforcement), in which process the teacher plays a good model of the target language and students imitate and repeat the model as accurately as possible. Due to the foundation that language learning is a matter of acquiring habits, students' successful responses are positively reinforced while errors are prevented at all costs.^[11] As a consequence, students' good habits are engendered through constant positive reinforcement using the stimulus-response-reinforcement model.^[7]

3.3 Teaching the four skills in the Audiolingual Method

3.3.1 The sequence of the four skills

Audiolingual teaching categorizes the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) into active skills (speaking and writing) that people use to produce language and passive skills (listening and reading) through which people receive language.^[11] Considering the fact that passive skills precede active skills and spoken language comes before written language, the natural order of the four skills in ALM is listening, speaking, reading and writing.^[11]

3.3.2 Procedures and exercises in the Audiolingual Method

The following is a dialogue used to show how speaking is taught in ALM compared to other three skills.

Housewife: Good morning.

Salesman: Good morning, Madam. Would you like to have the cleanest house in town?

Housewife: Yes, of course I would.

Salesman: Then, Madame. You need the amazing Hoover vacuum cleaner.

Housewife: No, I don't.

Salesman: What? Why not?

Housewife: Because my husband does the cleaning in our house.

Salesman: Ah...

First, the teacher introduces the dialogue showing students the real vacuum cleaner in order to let them get across what vacuum cleaner is in the target language. To impress them, two pictures of the housewife and salesman are drawn on the blackboard, and then students are told the background that one salesman knocks the door of a house to sell the Hoover vacuum cleaner. The teacher acts

the dialogue out in front of the students after instructions are made at the beginning of the class that students are not allowed to write down what they hear; instead, they only listen. When the first model is completed, the teacher acts it out a second time attempting to get students to understand all that he has said. Next, the whole class is asked to repeat each of the lines of the dialogue after his model. Before moving on to the next line they repeat each line several times.

When students stumble somewhere such as *would you like to have the cleanest...*, the teacher stops the repetition and uses a backward build-up drill. He articulates the separate part 'the cleanest', and then asks the whole class to repeat. After that, the teacher expands 'the cleanest' into 'the cleanest house in town'; students repeat. By saying the two phrases 'the cleanest house' and 'in town' again and again, students can distinguish the long vowel /i:/ and short vowel /i/ as well as acquire the diphthong /aʊ/. Finally, the whole sentence 'would you like to have the cleanest house in town' is repeated. It should be emphasized here that the reason why students have problem pronouncing the word 'cleanest' may result from the lack of a contrastive analysis.^[8] The teacher can help students by comparing the students' native language with the target language, and then designing an exercise using the minimal pair words, such as feel/fill, cheap/chip, and green/grin.^[10]

The above examples show that phonetic features of English pronunciation are taught by repeating the teacher model. However, Baker and Westrup note that effective English pronunciation is not only about mastering phonetics (sounds and sound clusters) correctly, but also knowing the suprasegmental or prosodic features such as stress and intonation.^[1] Therefore, the teacher can use repetition drill and chain drill to help students recognize the stress and intonation in one sentence. For instance, by repeating the sentence 'you need the AMAZING HOOOver vacuum cleaner' after the teacher model, students can recognize and achieve the stress of the words *amazing* and *Hoover* in this sentence naturally. In terms of teaching intonation, another example is that when the teacher playing the role of the salesman says 'what↑? why↑not↓?', the intonation can be acquired by the students through repeating the model. To check each student's speech, the chain drill can be used.^[8] First, the teacher begins by greeting a particular student, while after the student responds, he turns to the next. In this way, the accurate sounds of each sentence are reinforced. Whenever an error occurs from students' production, the teacher corrects it.

Except those drills mentioned above, other drills such as single-slot substitution drill, multiple-slot substitution drill, transformation drill and question-and-answer drill can be implemented.^[8] In substitution drills, the teacher provides students with cues (a word or a phrase). Through substituting the word or phrase into the line in its appropriate place, a number of sentence patterns such as *would you like to do...* are reinforced. Transformation drill and question-and-answer drill help students be familiar with the transformation from an active to passive sentence, from direct to indirect speech, and from a question to a statement. As a model and director in those drills, the teacher confirms the students' good performance as well as corrects their errors immediately, which facilitates the students in forming the good habits.

Finally, the teacher gives out the handout of the dialogue, based on which students can do some follow-up reading, writing, or vocabulary activities. At the beginning, writing activities may be restricted in complete-the-dialogue exercises filling some practiced sentence patterns in the blank or copying out the whole sentence. As proficiency increases, students may use framing questions to write some short compositions on given topics.^[5]

3.4 Limitations of the Audiolingual Method

In the development of ALM, criticisms gradually occur. One is that there is little spontaneity in terms of learner's language production, lesson planning and exercise design.^[12] Learners taking part

in the audiolingual activities produce the target language based on the habits formed by the drills; similarly, the lesson planning and exercise design also have to be confined to the drills. Gradually, researchers discover that overlearning and habit formation may not lead to language learning, and it is not necessary to prevent errors at all costs.^{[12][13]} Also, students may lose interest in repeating the sentence patterns passively. In addition, ALM focuses on isolated sentences, while real-life communication is much neglected.^[7]

Since ALM attaches great importance to pronunciation failing to teach students to use language in real situation, a new teaching method, Task-based Language Teaching is gained more attention.

4. Task-based Language Teaching

4.1 Definitions of TBLT and task

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) refers to “an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching”.^[5] It is regarded as a strong version of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), that is, learners develop a language system through attempts to use the language.^{[5][13][14][15]} However, it should be noted that CLT is a learning approach rather than a method, while TBLT is a communicative method developed from it containing a number of tasks that can be carried out in the classroom.

In terms of definitions of task, Nunan makes a distinction between target tasks (uses of language in the world outside the classroom) and pedagogical tasks (those that occur in the classroom).^[13] For instance, using the telephone belongs to the former, and an information-gap task belongs to the latter. Skehan describes a task as an activity in which the primacy focus is on meaning, there is some connection with the real world, task completion is a priority, and ‘the assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome’.^[16]

4.2 The role of speaking in TBLT

In TBLT, speaking is both a method of teaching and learning, and a learning goal. In other words, the role of speaking in a task includes two perspectives. One is that speaking acts as the main form of communication among students during the task (presenting, discussing, and negotiating), the other is speaking skills as the main learning outcome (presenting skills, discussion skills, and negotiating skills). One characteristic of a speaking task is that difficulties and misunderstandings can be negotiated. TBLT is in an attempt to recreate in the classroom the natural negotiating process of spontaneous interaction, therefore, whenever a gap occurs, it can be bridged by seeking clarifications among learners. Basically, the negotiation of meaning is went through various interactional moves to prompt access and attention to the target language incidentally, thus facilitating interlanguage in developing.^[17]

4.3 Using tasks to teach language skills

4.3.1 Information gap activities

In information gap activities, students are divided into different groups in which each group has various degrees of information. In order to complete the task, they need to negotiate the meaning and find out what other groups’ information is. According to Cross, one advantage of information gap activities is that they can be carried out in a simple and cheap way in regular, even large classrooms, but still keep students motivated.^[18] For example, the teacher puts one poster on the blackboard, before which gets alternate rows of students to turn around, so that half the class is facing the students behind them and only the front facing rows are accessible to the information on the blackboard.^[18] The example by Cross has a simple and economic effect, while what is more

common is the example by Bygate that two pictures (one has one set of information, the other has a complementary set) are provided.^{[3][18]}

4.3.2 Role plays

Role play is an effective way in which real communication that is relevant to experiences beyond the classroom such as complaining and complementing is practiced inside the classroom.^{[3][6][18]} However, according to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, if students are not given sufficient information about the background, the participants and the situation for the simulated interaction, role play can be a very unnatural and difficult task.^[4] Therefore, the teacher should provide students with all the information in the pre-task activities to make sure the task is meaningful. For instance, in a role play such as a talk show, the teacher prepares a talk show video as a pre-task activity having students watch a part of it, and then students in different groups write out role cards for fictitious people or famous stars and design the card following the same pattern such as name, country, job, age, hobbies.^[19] After the information concerning the participants, the background and situation for the talk show is made clear, students can perform the task. In this role play, speaking skills including asking all types of questions, introducing people and describing one's job or hobby can be practiced.

4.3.3 Group discussions

Discussions are used commonly in the speaking class. The best discussions in class arise naturally from the class materials such as a listening or reading passage, films and controversial debating topics.^[6] Lazaraton points out three aspects that teachers must take care in designing a discussion activity: a successful discussion outcome is ensured in distinct groups; each student should be reminded that they have a particular responsibility in the discussion whether to take notes as observers, keep time or report results; students need to make clear about the topic of the discussion, the reason for discussing it and what outcome is expected.^[20] Klippel provides a number of discussion games in his book *Keep talking: Communicative fluency activities for language teaching*. Some discussions help students to know themselves such as *Which job?* (see Appendix A), others get students to consider their values such as *Futures* (see Appendix B).^[19] Besides, Thornbury also notes that if students are provided with the expressions for showing strong agreement, strong disagreement, and all opinions between them, discussions will play a better role.^[6] Some useful expressions involve: hedging (I take your point, but...), strong agreement (I totally agree. / Absolutely.), qualified agreement (That's partly true.), strong disagreement (I don't agree.), expressing an opinion (I think.../ If you ask me...) and conceding an argument (You've convinced me. / Perhaps you're right).^[6]

4.3.4 Presentations

Presentation skills are most typically taught in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and Business English courses. In the academic and business settings, before teaching the presentation skills, discussing the formal characteristics of such genres as well as "identifying specific language exponents associated with each stage" may be facilitative.^[6] For instance, students can discuss the criteria of a good presentation directed by the teacher. Lazaraton categorizes the speech criteria into four aspects: content and organization (Did the speaker make his point intelligible? Was there any inappropriateness in the introduction or conclusion?), delivery (Was formal language used by the speaker? Was the volume loud enough? Was the speed proper?), interaction/ rapport with audience (How were the gestures, posture, nervousness and eye contact?) and language skills (Did the

speaker have problems with pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary?).^[20] In terms of reducing the stress of solo performance, the advice offered by Thornbury is to require students to work in groups at the preparing stage and deliver the speech in turns.^[6] In order to maintain listeners' interest, peer evaluation can be used according to the criteria they have discussed. Moreover, the presentation can be videotaped for self-evaluation and teacher evaluation, in which way helps speakers know their strengths and weaknesses and enhance their presentation skills.

5. Conclusion

Comparing the role of speaking skills in Direct Method, Audiolingual Method and Task-based Language Teaching, the similarity is that they all emphasize that the goal of language learning is to learn to communicate in the target language.^[8] However, speaking skills are taught in different ways in each method. As opposed to learning in the Grammar Translation where speaking is much neglected, students in the Direct Method use the target language exclusively and learn it through error correction and question and answer exercises without any translation. Led by the native teacher, students are able to acquire the correct pronunciation including phonetic (sound and sound clusters) and prosodic (stress, intonation, speech tempo and chunking) features and some discourse skills in particular situations such as communicating in a post office or hotel.^[9] In Audiolingual Method, a strong focus is on pronunciation, but not on discourse skills. Students acquire the target language by means of repeating the sentence patterns in a number of dialogue and drills such as backward build-up drill, repetition drill, chain drill, single-slot substitution drill, multiple-slot substitution drill, transformation drill and question-and-answer drill.

Distinct from the above two methods, discourse skills are highly emphasized in the Task-based Language Teaching. A number of meaningful and interesting tasks such as information-gap activities, role plays, group discussions and presentations can be carried out in the TBLT classroom. Students perform the tasks as if they were in the real-life situations, and then acquire communicative skills such as turn-taking and repair in a discussion or conversation, introducing themselves in a job interview. In the classroom, more flexibility is given to teachers to design the practical tasks and students to perform the tasks using the target language freely.

In the final analysis, speaking plays the role of both a teaching method and a teaching goal in all the three methods. However, the Direct Method and the Audiolingual Method focus more on pronunciation skills, while TBLT emphasizes the discourse skills (presentation skills, discussion skills, and negotiation skills). Moreover, different procedures and activities in each method offer L2 language teachers much flexibility, since they can select the appropriate method and activities according to students' level and needs. The Direct Method and the Audiolingual Method are more suitable for beginners and intermediate learners, while task-based activities are more applicable to advanced learners.

References

- [1] Baker, J., & Westrup, H. (2003). *Essential speaking skills: A handbook for English language teachers*. London: Continuum.
- [2] Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [3] Bygate, M. (1987). *Speaking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [4] Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- [5] Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. H. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [6] Thornbury, S. (2005). *How to teach speaking*. Harlow: Longman.
- [7] Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Harlow: Longman.
- [8] Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [9] Berlitz, M. D. (1947). *Method for teaching modern languages: English part*. New York: Berlitz.
- [10] Kelly, G. (2000). *How to teach pronunciation*. Harlow: Longman.
- [11] Cook, V. J. (2008). *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Arnold.
- [12] Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Harlow: Pearson.
- [13] Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-Based language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [14] Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- [15] Klapper, J. (2003). Taking communication to task? A critical review of recent trends in language teaching. *Language Learning Journal*, 27(1), 33-42.
- [16] Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics*, 17(1), 38-61.
- [17] Bruton, A. (2005). Task-based language teaching: For the state secondary FL classroom? *Language Learning Journal*, 31(1), 55-68.
- [18] Cross, D. (1992). *A practical handbook of language teaching*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- [19] Klippel, F. (1984). *Keep talking: Communicative fluency activities for language teaching* (4th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- [20] Lazaraton, A. (2001). Teaching oral skills. In Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp.103-114). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Appendix A

Which jobs?

Aims	Skills – speaking Language – conditional, discussing, giving reasons, names of jobs Other – getting to know each other, learning something about oneself
Level	Intermediate
Organization	Groups of six students

Preparation	None
Time	15 – 20 minutes
Procedure	Step1: the students work together in groups. Each group member writes down the ideal job for himself and for everybody else in the group. Step2 The job lists are read out and discussed in the groups. Students explain why they feel the ‘ideal jobs’ suggested for them would/would not be ideal.

Source : Klippel, 1984, p. 80

Appendix B

Futures

Aim	Skills – writing, speaking Language – future tense, making comparisons Other – thinking about the world around us and how we are affected by what happens there
Level	Intermediate

Organization	Individuals, groups
Preparation	Two charts for each student
Time	20 - 30 minutes
Procedure	<p>Step1: Each student receives two copies of the chart. He is asked to fill in one with <i>Good Things</i>, the other with <i>Bad Things</i> by writing examples in each square.</p> <p>Step 2: When students have finished, they form groups to share and discuss their hopes and fears for the future. Each group can focus on one time period and report the good and bad feelings of their group.</p>
Variations	Instead of writing, the students can draw sketches.
Remarks	It is important to see the connections between the various squares. What happens in the world now may well affect our children in twenty years' time.

Source: Klippel, 1984, p. 80